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EDITORIAL

Economic Development: For Whom, By Whom?

Few people, if any, can prescribe the processess and mechanisms that lead to economic development because those individuals who may possess an adequate global view of what constitutes social change frequently lack detailed knowledge of the specific social and geo-political realities among the diversity of nations, cultures, and societies we call Latin America. On the other hand, those who may have sufficient knowledge of the details often lack a unifying hypothesis for organizing and analysing the details.

Economists are no exception. They have, perhaps more than other social scientists, developed a specialized area of study in development, yet their theories and models are more in the nature of fragments and partial insights rather than complete and general systems. There may never be a complete and general model that will be equally useful for all societies. Possibly the most one can do is to try to accurately observe the human condition as it is found in different communities, and study the diverse and frequently conflicting modes of human behavior.

Perhaps the development economist should take a more humanistic approach, stopping from time to time to ask himself who it is that undertakes or induces development, and who benefits from it. Should development be planned by government functionaries and technicians to the exclusion of private efforts? Can private business achieve the kind of social changes that generate benefits for large numbers of people? Does the education system make people more willing to undertake risk? Does it create entrepreneurs, or does it educate people in traditional modes of behavior? Can people be trusted with economic development, or must they be told what is good for them? Are there economic devils needing exorcism, or do people merely react rationally to events over which they feel they have no control as individuals?

None of these questions are easy to answer, and it seems that much additional work needs to be done. The organized study of social change and economic development is, after all, a relatively recent phenomenon in the academic community. Serious work by economists began only after World War II when it became obvious that the less developed countries desired economic freedom as well as political freedom.

In the search for guides and prototypes it was quite natural that attempts would be made to adapt the experience of the industrialized countries for

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MEMBERS OF LATIN AMERICAN STUDIES COMMITTEE

Western Kentucky University has a combination of unusually well-prepared faculty to support its Latin American Studies Program:

Reza Ahsan, Ph.D., University of Florida, Geography
Lourdes Aramayo, Graduate Student, Sucre, Bolivia, Psychology
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J. T. Sandefur, Ed.D., Indiana University, Education
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Economic Development

application to the less developed areas of the world. Is it possible, however, to transfer the development experience of the United States or Western Europe to the less developed countries without careful consideration being given to local conditions? This is not to say that industrialized nations can never make useful contributions, or that economists cannot provide pragmatic solutions for development problems. The basic question remains, however, as to whether the prototype of the industrialized economy, which slowly evolved into its present form over a period of three hundred years, can be implanted in the social body of the recipient country without causing severe rejection symptoms.

Some people say that economic development is too serious and complex a matter to be left exclusively to economists because it involves many changes in the total structure and behavior of society. One thing that economists do know, however, is that the road to development contains many barriers, that the development process requires the ability to withstand numerous frustrations, and a willingness to incur present sacrifices in order to generate future benefits.

This issue of *Intercambio Internacional* contains several articles dealing with the broad area of economic development and social change, and future issues will continue to discuss the problems and issues of socio-economic development from various points of view. The editors, therefore, hope that it will not serve simply as another vehicle for expressing the views of a narrow group of specialists in a specific discipline. On the contrary, we hope that it will be a medium for a continuing dialogue and for the exchange of ideas among educators, public administrators, scientists, technicians, and professionals of the Americas.

Kenneth T. Cann
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Bowling Green, Kentucky

MAY TERM COURSE IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The Latin American Studies Program of Western Kentucky University, in cooperation with the International Dimensions Project, is sponsoring a study-tour to Central America during the three week May Term. The study-tour, which will involve approximately 25 students and faculty members, will include visits to three countries: Guatemala, Costa Rica and Panama. Students can earn three academic credits for participating in the course and fulfilling other requirements. Credits can be earned in Spanish, art, music, government, and Latin American Studies, among others. The course is part of the University's growing commitment to add international and intercultural dimensions to the curriculum available to students.

EL BANCO INTERAMERICANO DE DESARROLLO.

El Director de la Sección de Educación, Ciencia y Tecnología del BID, Dr. Ismael Escobar V. visitó a Western Kentucky University durante los días 11 y 12 de Abril del presente año. En las cuatro mesas redondas que sostuvo con directivas y profesores de las Facultades de Educación, Ciencia y Tecnología y miembros del Comité de Estudios Latinoamericanos, el distinguido visitante explicó la excelente labor desarrollada por el Banco en beneficio de la Educación Superior, la Educación Técnica y Vocacional, el fomento de la Investigación Científica de los países miembros del BID.

De 1962 a Diciembre de 1973, el Banco ha aprobado 76 préstamos por un valor de US$ 295.331.600 para financiar proyectos por un valor global de US$ 584.127.400. Gracias al apoyo del Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, la Educación Latinoamericana se ha fortalecido cualitiativa y quantitativamente, esfuerzo indispensable para el Desarrollo Social y Económico de los pueblos del continente.

Promotion of Education, Science and Technology by the Inter-American Development Bank

IDB'S ROLE IN PROMOTING EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

1.1 Background

The Inter-American Development Bank is an intergovernmental agency set up to help speed the process of economic development, both individual and collective, in its member countries. The Bank does this by financing projects throughout the region in different fields of social and economic development, using its own capital, funds which it raises in the money markets and resources which it administers on behalf of others.

From the outset of its activities, it introduced an important change in international public financing by including higher education and advanced training among its fields of action. This pioneer determination was based on the conviction that education, science and technology are basic tools in the development process and are closely related.

The Inter-American Development Bank, which acts in relation to and at the request of its member countries, considers that its contribution in the education sector can be measured from three different but inter-related aspects; as a Bank, financing educational, scientific and technological institutions directly and indirectly; as a development agency, collaborating with the countries in selecting alternatives, projects and plans, making studies and providing, along with other organizations, the technical assistance necessary for the formulation of those plans; and as a Latin-American institution deeply concerned with the problems of the region and willing to seek—together with the countries—the proper means for solving them.

The IDB began operations on October 1, 1960, and authorized its first loan early in February 1961; in 1962 it granted five loans, totaling more than 12 million dollars, to higher education. To date 76 loans, amounting to US$295,331,600 have been authorized.

In carrying out its educational program, IDB at first used the resources of the Social Progress Trust Fund established under an agreement with the United States Government as part of the Alliance for Progress Program. By 1965, these trust funds had been fully committed and the Bank began to finance educational loans by drawing on its Expanded Fund for Special Operations on terms which enable it to use resources on a long-term low interest basis. The change in source of financing gave the Bank an opportunity to modify its policy in these sectors, expanding the support to other

sectors, such as technical education, vocational education and training of skilled workers. Subsequently the policy of support for pure and applied research was approved, and its activities were expanded to include financing to educational loan institutes.

1.2 Fields of Action

The principal aim of the Bank's activities in the field of education is to support the national efforts in the following fields:

(a) Higher education
(b) Technical and vocational education
(c) Scientific and technological development
(d) Student financial assistance

In the field of higher education preference is given to strengthen institutional development programs, improvement of teaching and research in the basic and applied sciences, such as agriculture and engineering, without neglecting other sectors which contribute to national development.

The growing demand for access to the university system, as well as the need to adapt the institutions to the changing conditions of the countries of the region have led to a series of modifications in the academic and administrative structure of the universities as well as in the teaching methods and in the orientation of the programs. The loans from the Bank have supported this process, encouraging educational planning, scientific and technological research through the equipping of laboratories, training of teaching and research personnel, the introduction of full-time faculty and students, the establishment of student assistance programs for students with low incomes, and the reform and modernization of the university financial administration.

In the field of technical vocational education, the Bank supports programs designed to train middle-level technicians for agricultural, industrial, and commercial activities and to train and upgrade skilled personnel for a variety of jobs and services.

In the scientific and technological sector the Bank, besides supporting research programs at universities, extends this support to other non-teaching organizations and specialized institutions which promote scientific and technological research and are closely related to social and economic development. This action enables the Bank to collaborate with standards institutes, and support research for cartography, geology, topography, meteorology, hydrology, natural resources, etc. It also sponsors the establishment or strengthening of councils, foundations, academies and other organizations for planning and coordinating scientific and technological policy.

Support for educational loan institutions is based, fundamentally, on the fact that such assistance acts: i) As an instrument for institutional development of the teaching organizations at the various levels. ii) It enables students who would otherwise be excluded to have access to education. iii) It provides additional complementary resources for public and private financing of educational systems. iv) It multiplies the effect of the resources through the creation of revolving funds. v) It is a complementary element in bringing about the implementation of continuous education supporting courses and seminars that would permit both the upgrading of personnel at the highest levels of the educational, scientific and technological system and the support of efforts to build up productivity and eliminate illiteracy.

1.3 Amount and purpose of loans

Between 1962 and Dec. 31, 1973; the IDB made 76 loans totaling the equivalent of US$295,331,600 to educational establishments in almost every country of the region. These loans helped finance projects with a total cost of US$584,127,400, which represents a very substantial effort in mobilizing local resources for investment in education. Table 1 shows the borrowing institutions, the purpose and amount of the loans and the total cost of the projects.

Loans to education have been basically distributed according to the areas of priorities shown in Table 2. The loan funds have for the most part been invested in the construction of buildings, the purchase of modern equipment for teaching and research laboratories, the purchase of library material, the training and upgrading of teaching and research staff and student financial assistance.

1.4 Resources used

In carrying out its educational program, IDB at first used the resources of the Social Progress Trust Fund established under an agreement with the United States Government as part of the Alliance for Progress Program. By June 30, 1971 these trust funds had been fully disbursed. In 1966 the Bank began to finance educational loans by drawing on its Expanded Fund for Special Operations. Although the Bank has been drawing on the Fund for Special Operations to finance the educational sector, on certain occasions resources from the Canadian Fund have been used. At the request of the borrowing institutions, the Bank can also operate with resources from its Ordinary Capital or may possibly mobilize Bank-administered funds from other sources. Its lending terms can vary depending on the source of the loan funds.

1.5 Technical assistance

IDB provides national and regional institutions with technical assistance in preparing and executing development plans and projects, as well as in training the personnel needed to carry them out. Such assistance may be reimbursable, non-reimbursable or on a contingent basis, depending on the kind of operation involved. The non-reimbursable technical assistance represents funds granted by the Bank to carry out studies or projects. Technical assistance on a contingent basis is normally provided for the preparation of projects, development plans or feasibility studies and is reimbursable only in case a loan operation follows the technical assistance.

1.6 Training and other activities

The Bank sponsors advanced training for professional personnel in the Latin American countries through courses and seminars (which organizes itself) or jointly with specialized agencies in the region or in each country. In addition, many fellowships have been awarded for these courses, and funds have been made available for organizing studies, lecture series, meetings, publication of papers, etc. Some of these activities took place at universities and other institutions offering regular programs of higher education.

One of the surveys conducted was on the status of agricultural education, research and extension in a number of Latin American countries. These and other similar studies have been completed or are being carried out in collaboration with other international agencies or agencies belonging to the inter-american system.

Concerned because of the lack of specialized reference texts and other books in Spanish in the countries of the hemisphere, IDB decided to sponsor the preparation and publication of a collection of 200 books on economics in collaboration with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the Latin American Center for Monetary Studies (CEMLA). The collections were distributed as gifts among higher education, governmental, financial and other institutions engaged in this field of activity. This collection met with such a response that supplies are now virtually exhausted.

In the field of integration, another Bank effort being carried out through the Institute for Latin American Integration (INTAL) in cooperation with CEMLA, is the compilation of

200 collections of 50 books and documents on the subject of Latin American integration.

In November 1970 a loan to the Panamerican Health Education Foundation (PAHEF) was approved, in the amount of US$2.000.000, as the IDB's contribution to the US$8.501.000 project for printing and distribution of medical texts to Latin American universities.

BREAKDOWN OF IDB LOANS TO EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY AND FINANCIAL STUDENT ASSISTANCE, BY AREA AND BY COUNTRY

(Up to December 31, 1973)

(US$ thousands)

Country	Engineering	S C I E N C E S					Science and Technol.	Technical Vocation. Education	Student Financial Assistance	Other Areas	TOTAL
		Nat.	Agric.	Health	Soc.	Educ.					
AR	3.480	1.640	760	3.800	120	—	—	12.000	—	—	21.800.
BA	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.800	—	—	2.800.
BO	725	1.000	640	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.365.
BR	7.745	13.025	1.750	—	—	—	36.000	19.000	—	2.480	80.000.
CH	7.355	4.760	5.280	1.560	1.502	670		490	—	8.283	29.900.
CO	5.954	4.059	1.530	525	438	6.060	—	—	170	14.364	33.100.
CR	413	890	295	—	—	—	—	3.500	—	537	5.635.
EC	2.649	1.095	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.356	5.100.
ES	415	260	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.000	2.675.
GU	738	1.707	100	—	374	721	—	—	—	6.445	10.085.
HA	—	—	630	325	—	175	—	170	—	—	1.300.
HO	440	738	640	4.800	—	—	—	—	—	1.332	7.950.
JA	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4.700	—	4.700.
ME	495	—	2.100	—	—	—	400	—	—	505	3.500.
NI	—	350	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.371	1.721.
PN	1.200	345	520	1.460	190	—	—	3.400	2.100	3.185	12.400.
PR	165	275	2.238	—	88	—	—	—	—	834	3.600.
PE	3.055	2.310	2.000	—	—	—	—	—	—	435	7.800.
RE	—	—	—	2.000	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.000.
RD	342	—	349	—	209	—	—	—	—	3.400	4.300.
TT	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9.400	3.700	—	13.100.
UR	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4.500	—	—	4.500.
VE	21.138	6.637	1.564	—	235	3.731	—	—	—	1.695	35.000.
TOTAL	56.309	39.091	20.396	14.470	3.156	11.357	36.400	55.260	10.670	48.222	295.331
Percent	19.0%	13.2%	7.0%	4.9%	1.2%	3.8%	12.3%	18.7%	3.6%	16.3%	100.%

APORTE DEL BID, LOCAL Y DE OTRAS FUENTES EN PRESTAMOS PARA EDUCACION, CIENCIA Y TECHNOLOGIA EN AMERICAN LATINA

(EN US$)

(Al 31 de diciembre de 1973)

Prestamo No.	Prestatario o ejecutor	Fecha de aprobacion	Objeto del proyecto	Costo toatl del proyecto	Aporte del BID	Aporte local	Otras fuentes
26/TF-AR	Universidades Nacionales, Argentina	22/3/62	Re-equipamiento de ocho universidades	10.000.000	5.000.000	5.000.000	—
33/TF-ME	Instituto Mexicano de Invest. Tecnologicas	19/4/62	Equipos de laboratorios	400.000	400.000	—	—
45/TF-CH	Universidad de Chile	15/11/62	Desarrollo de Colegios Regionales	6.847.000	2.300.000	3.924.000	623.000
46/TF-PE	Universidad Mayor de San Marcos, Peru	15/11/62	Departamento de Ciencias basicas	3.002.000	1.500.000	622.000	880.000
50/TF-GU	Universidad de San Carlos, Guatemala	20/12/62	Programa de Ciencias basicas	2.592.000	785.000	540.000	1.267.000
50/TF-HO	Universidad Nacional de Honduras	20/12/62	Programa de Ciencias basicas	1.708.000	350.00	469.000	889.000
50/TF-ES	Universidad Nacional de El Salvador	20/12/62	Programa de Ciencias basicas	2.460.000	675.000	1.535.000	250.000
50/TF-NI	Universidad Nacional de Nicaragua	20/12/62	Programa de Ciencias basicas	1.070.000	350.000	520.000	200.000
50/TF/CR	Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica	20/12/62	Programa de Ciencias basicas	2.580.000	765.000	636.000	1.179.000
62/TF-VE	Universidad Nacional de Oriente, Venezuela	18/4/63	Ciencias basicas y tecnologicas	2.400.000	1.000.000	1.100.000	300.000
70/TF-ME	Centro Nac. de Agricultura, Chapingo, Mexico	31/12/63	Ciencias agricolas	9.426.000	2.100.000	2.500.000	4.826.000
72/TF-EC	Universidad Nacional de Guayaquil, Ecuador	31/12/63	Ciencias basicas y tecnologicas	800.000	600.000	200.000	—
73/TF-EC	Universidad Central de Quito, Ecuador	31/12/63	Ciencias basicas y tecnologicas	840.000	400.000	100.000	340.000
76/TF-PE	Universidad Agraria "La Molina", Peru	30/4/64	Desarrollo institucional, Ciencias agricolas	8.700.000	2.000.000	1.000.000	5.700.000
77/TF-CO	Universidad Nacional de Colombia	30/4/64	Ciencias basicas y tecnologicas	2.446.000	1.100.000	1.346.000	—
78/TF-BO	Universidad Mayor de San Andres, Bolivia	7/5/64	Laboratorio de ingenieria	510.000	325.000	185.000	—
85/TF-BR	CAPES (Universidades del Brasil)	30/7/64	Entrenamiento avanzado en Ciencia y Tecnologia	7.630.000	4.000.000	2.500.000	1.130.000
91/TF-CH	Universidad de Chile	1/10/64	Expansion Escuela de salubridad	2.300.000	1.250.000	1.050.000	—
94/TF-PE	Universidad Nacional de Ingenieria, Peru	8/10/64	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria	9.158.000	2.500.000	3.085.000	3.573.000
96/TF-CH	Universidad Catolica de Chile	22/10/64	Ciencias fisicas y matematicas	3.800.000	1.050.000	2.000.000	750.000
101/TF-RD	Universidad Autonoma de Santo Domingo	24/12/64	Ingenieria, Agronomia y Estudios generales	2.900.000	900.000	2.000.000	—
106/TF-PR	Universidad Nacional de Asuncion, Paraguay	8/4/65	Desarrollo institucional	2.150.000	1.500.000	650.000	—
111/TF-BO	Universidad Mayor de San Andres, Bolivia	20/5/65	Ciencias basicas	1.000.000	740.000	260.000	—
112/TF-CO	Universidad del Valle, Colombia	10/6/65	Desarrollo institucional (pre-inversion)	660.000	500.000	160.000	—
66/SF-BO	Instituto Tecnologico de Monterrey, Mexico	21/10/65	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria	2.998.000	1.000.000	1.546.000	442.000
67/SF-CH	Universidad de Concepcion, Chile	4/11/65	Desarrollo Institucional	2.920.000	1.200.000	1.720.000	—
74/SF-CO	Universidad de Los Andes, Colombia	16/12/65	Ciencias basicas, Ingenieria	1.948.000	1.000.000	448.000	500.000
76/SF-BO	Universidad Mayor de San Simon, Bolivia	21/12/65	Ciencias basicas, Agronomia	754.000	500.000	254.000	—
77/SF-BO	Universidad Tecnica de Oruro, Bolivia	21/12/65	Ingenieria	800.000	400.000	400.000	—
78/SF-BO	Universidad Autonoma Gabriel R. Moreno, Bolivia	21/12/65	Medicina veterinaria	600.000	400.000	200.000	—
84/SF-CH	Universidad Tecnica Federico Santa Maria, Chile	6/1/66	Ingenieria, Educacion tecnica vocacional	4.100.000	2.500.000	1.600.000	—
88/SF-PN	Gobierno de Panama (IFARHU)	17/3/66	Programa de credito educativo	1.000.000	700.000	300.000	—
90/SF-AR	Universidad de Buenos Aires, Argentina	24/4/66	Equipamiento de Hospital-escuela	10.500.000	3.800.000	6.700.000	—
91/SF-AR	Comision Nacional de Energia Atomica, Argentina	24/4/66	Equipamiento del departamento de metalurgia	1.490.000	1.000.000	490.000	—
95/SF-CH	Universidad de Chile	12/5/66	Ciencias agropecuarias	6.400.000	5.000.000	1.400.000	—
102/SF-CO	Universidad de Antioquia, Colombia	21/7/66	Desarrollo institucional	9.650.000	5.300.000	4.350.000	—
121/SF-HA	Universidad de Haiti	17/11/66	Ciencias agricolas, Medicina, Educacion tecnica vocacional	2.700.000	1.300.000	1.400.000	—
124/SF-PE	Universidad Nacional de Trujillo, Peru	8/12/66	Ciencias basicas, Ingenieria	3.100.000	1.800.000	1.300.000	—
125/SF-CO	Universidad Nacional de Colombia	8/12/66	Desarrollo institucional	18.400.000	7.700.000	10.700.000	—
143/SF-CH	Universidad Tecnica del Estado, Chile	13/4/67	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria	14.900.000	(1.000.000)	9.900.000	—
9/CD-CH	Universidad Tecnica del Estado, Chile	13/4/67	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria		(4.000.000)		—
144/SF-CR	Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica	12/5/67	Ingenieria, Agronomia, Farmacia	2.519.000	1.370.000	1.149.000	—
145/SF-BR	CEPETI (Ministerio de Educacion, Brasil)	12/5/67	Educacion tecnica y aprendizaje industrial	4.600.000	3.000.000	1.600.000	—
158/SF-BR	Nueva Universidades del Brasil (CEPES)	16/11/67	Desarrollo Inst. Ciencias basicas, Ingenieria y Agricultura	45.500.000	25.000.000	20.400.000	—
164/SF-VE	Universidad Catolica Andres Bello, Venezuela	19/12/67	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria y Educacion	2.990.000	1.500.000	1.490.000	—
175/SF-CO	Universidad del Valle, Colombia	11/4/68	Desarrollo institucional	11.500.000	6.600.000	4.900.000	—
177/SF-NI	Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Nicaragua	11/4/68	Desarrollo institucional (pre-inversion)	375.000	250.000	125.000	—
183/SF-HO	Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Honduras	11/7/68	Desarrollo institucional	4.830.800	2.800.000	2.030.800	—
209/SF-AR	CONET (Consejo Nacional de Educacion Tecnica, Argentina)	27/3/69	Educacion tecnica vocacional	31.900.000	12.000.000	19.900.000	—
216/SF-EC	Escuela Politecnica Nacional, Ecuador	4/10/69	Desarrollo institucional, Ingenieria	2.550.000	1.500.000	1.050.000	—
244/SF-PN	Gobierno de Panama	11/12/69	Educacion tecnica vocacional	6.330.000	3.400.000	2.930.000	—
264/SF-ES	Universidad Centroamericana Jose Simeon Canas	9/7/70	Desarrollo institucional	3.540.000	2.000.000	1.540.000	—
265/SF-UR	Universidad del Trabajo, Uruguay	23/7/70	Educacion tecnica vocacional	7.300.000	4.500.000	2.800.000	—
279/SF-RE	PAHO (Fund. Panamericana de la Educ. y la Salud)	19/11/70	Programa de libros de textos de medicina	8.501.000	2.000.000	—	6.501.000
283/SF-JA	Gobierno de Jamaica	29/12/70	Programa de credito educativo	8.000.000	4.700.000	3.300.000	—
287/SF-CH	Universidad Austral de Chile	14/1/71	Programa de desarrollo de la universidad (1970-1980)	8.400.000	4.600.000	3.800.000	—
288/SF-CH	Universidad Catolica de Chile	14/1/71	Programa de desarrollo de la universidad (1970-1980)	14.000.000	7.000.000	7.000.000	—
292/SF-PN	Gobierno de Panama (IFARHU)	22/1/71	Programa de credito educativo	2.100.000	1.400.000	700.000	—
295/SF-PR	Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganaderia, Paraguay	29/4/71	Sub-proyecto de educacion agropecuaria	3.330.000	2.100.000	1.230.000	—
300/SF-RD	Universidad Catolica Madrey Maestra, Rca. Dominicana	24/6/71	Desarrollo institucional	5.200.000	3.400.000	1.800.000	—
308/SF-CR	Gobierno de Costa Rica	7/10/71	Programa de educacion tecnica y profesional	5.700.000	3.500.000	2.200.000	—
309/SF-EC	Escuela Superior Politecnica del Litoral, Ecuador	14/10/71	Desarrollo institucional	3.900.000	2.600.000	1.300.000	—
312/SF-HO	Hospital Escuela-Honduras	18/11/71	Equipamiento de Hospital-escuela	7.300.000	4.800.000	2.500.000	—
325/SF-PN	Universidad Nacional de Panama	5/7/72	Desarrollo institucional	10.700.000	6.900.000	3.800.000	—
334/SF-CO	Universidad Industrial de Santander	5/10/72	Desarrollo institucional	9.400.000	5.900.000	3.500.000	—
336/SF-TT	Gobierno de Trinidad y Tobago	12/10/72	Fondo rotatorio para credito estudiantil	6.200.000	3.700.000	2.500.000	—
344/SF-CO	PIDUZOB, Colombia	29/11/72	Sub-proyecto para educacion de la zona oriental de Bogota	8.700.000	5.000.000	3.700.000	—
346/SF-BA	Barbados Community College	7/12/72	Educacion vocacional	4.300.000	2.800.000	1.500.000	—
347/SF-TT	Gobierno de Trinidad y Tobago	7/12/72	Educacion vocacional	15.600.000	9.400.000	6.200.000	—
354/SF-VE	Universidad Simon Bolivar, Venezuela	19/4/73	Desarrollo institucional	38.500.000	17.400.000	21.100.000	—
355/SF-VE	Universidad de Los Andes, Venezuela	19/4/73	Desarrollo institucional	29.000.000	15.100.000	13.900.000	—
357/SF-NI	Gobierno de Nicaragua	26/4/73	Sub-proyecto para Reconstruccion de las Univ. de Nicaragua	1.232.600	1.121.600	111.000	—
361/SF-BR		21/6/73			25.800.000		—
250/OC-BR	Republica Federativa do Brasil	21/6/73	Desarrollo de la Investigacion Tecnologica	58.000.000	6.200.000	26.000.000	—
379/SF-BR	Republica Federativa do Brasil	1/11/73	Proyecto de Desarrollo de la Educ. Med. Tecnica y Prof.	33.000.000	16.000.000	17.000.000	—
383/SF-GU	Univ. Rafael Landivar y Univ. del Valle	6/12/73	Programa de Educacion Superior	11.600.000	9.300.000	2.300.000	—
				584.127.400	295.331.600	259.445.800	29.350.000

UN DESAFIO AL DESARROLLISMO.

Thomas C. Ramey, de la Inter-American Foundation, candidato al doctorado de la Universidad de Tulane es un abanderado en el proceso de humanización del desarrollo; en el presente artículo hace un llamado a los desarrollistas, a los sociólogos y profesionales de todas las áreas de la ciencia para evaluar el enfoque tradicional del desarrollo y buscar la incorporación y participación activa de los grupos humanos que son objeto de los diferentes planes y programas de cambio social y económico. Sus ideas y afirmaciones, tal como se exponen en INTERCAMBIO INTERNACIONAL solo comprometen a su autor.

A Challenge To Developmentalist

by Tom Ramey

Today there is a global expression of concern for the state of Man and society. Those intimately involved in development have much cause for concern: the "Green Revolution" that was prophesied as an imminent reality has suffered serious set-backs; heretofore accepted economic notions and their accompanying indices of development are challenged by rampant world-wide inflation and deceiving indicators; the social and economic models of the 1950's and 1960's have not proven to be the panaceas they were once presumed to be. Our negative reflection on the past causes many to cling to the new innuendos of conscientization (Freire), or incremental development(Goulet), or the themes of "liberation" that pervade today's literature. "Development" as a word has itself suffered a great deal of criticism because of its paternalistic implications. We seem to be leaping from one perceived means of facilitating societal growth and opportunity to another, finding that each jump is confronted with the same mulitplicity of variables that were either not anticipated or simply not understood.

In all of this I see a persisting ambiguity, particularly in contemporary thought, that is worrisome. The tendency of the development world is to think in terms of models, theoretical determinations and indices. These serve to delineate norms of development, their ulitmate dynamic and how they may be appreciated vis-a-vis analysis. Yet, in virtually all cases it is the aiding source who engages in this exercise while the recipient either observes or is given restricted options, predetermined by the elected model for that given year. The underlying assumption always seems to be that he who has the funds is tasked with determining their use and that said use must be the result of a model that treats a problem in the structure of a society. As fate would have it, the models have had results analogous to ecologists introducing new species (or inputs) into partially understood eco-systems: the end product was the creation of yet another imbalance and distortion of the existent system.

The way Paulo Freire is often used is one of the best contemporary examples that comes to mind of this persisting approach to the Third World. As we reflect on the past, we criticize in very chic fashion the closed system approach of the economist and the arrogance of sociologist who together stated "this is what we must do". In this reflective mood we begin to collectively coalesce around notions of "dialogue"; that one must be the "subject" of development, not the object"; that oppression can be grappled with once the "real world" is perceived correctly. Does not the irony become evident? Again we decide that dealogue is obligatory; that there is a way to perceive the "real world"; that one must become the "subject" and not the "object". Freire is attractive because he is Latin, they say. Again, this is the same as saying we have found our *Latino,* we have found our solution–we have our new model!

The moment we decide what the nature of Latin America's one model will be, is the moment we reject Latin America as a dynamic hemisphere. In the process we are also continuing to assume a *de facto* right to decide who shall design the model and ulimately what that model shall be. This represents, unfortunately, a repetition of the past. The only difference is that a Freireian philosophy suggests a liberation coloration which has become an imperative component in any development presentation, but which, via the above process, is rendered ultimately impotent as a concept: the dynamic is not allowed expression; it is defined as an absolute.

One challenge then, is to create a means that will allow us to respond to the hemisphere dynamic, but in a way that helps us to understand our own dynamic, so that our level of cognizance is not destorted by our own insensitivities to what our role represents.

Our methodologies generally do not assume a creativity, insightful perceptions, or analytical capacities on the part of people who live *their* reality.The peristing assumption is that models, theories and hence axioms must be developed to render solutions for those judged as being impoverished, destitute or alienated. These very conditions are often attributed to the intellectual state as well as the structural in Latin America. In virtually all cases the underlying assumption is that the problem is predicated on the presence of a social or structural pathology which inhibits development.

I contend that it is time we as people interested in development, whether it be national or international, discontinue our self perpetuation professional pondering in isolation as to what models of structure or theory about a country or countries will best serve to answer the question of underdevelopment and its erradication, but seek instead to develop means whereby those who live the reality of "underdevelopment" can begin to employ their strengths to treat their problems through their perceptions.The task would be then to continue to work with theory and methodologies but with the objective of creating modes which stimulate others to conceive and actualize solutions according to a dynamic they live versus an extension of alien solutions to problems which the theorist can only relate to esoterically, not emperientially. By approaching societies and their problems in anyway other than this, we engage in *de facto* imposition of what we see as being appropriate. That, by definition means that we do not accept the capacity of the people we are *acting on* to be sufficient to warrant their expression, and hence operationalization, of ideas.

Man is too dynamic, and our problems too profound and complex, to have any one nation or strata of society deciding what development theory is best for Man. Social scientists and people of various experiences need to continue to use analytical tools and theoretical ideas, but with the objective of freeing Man to react to his own milieu. If our intent is sincere and our objective is social betterment, then Man's dynamic solutions must in part surge forth from those who live the problem and not those who soley hypothesize it. The challenge to social scientist, decision makers, and professionals of various ilks is to seek mechanisms which assure the incorporation and participation of those who are seen as experiencing "the problems" and that such a mechanism facilitate the mutual exploration, sharing and respect that is needed for collaborative attempts at meaningful problem solving. The issue should be, in Maslow's terms, "humanization", not development in its traditional sense.

The task before us will be to create a means whereby social betterment will emerge because a mechanism was created to respond to different societies and societal needs, encouraging and responding to their perceptions and accompanying methodologies for solving problems. And, from having taken this step action will ensue. It is at this point that the human dynamic is given a new life. This is when process and phenomenon take precedence over sectorial and structural diagnosis; this is when an awesome challenge will have been met.

EL DESARROLLO REGIONAL Y LA UNIVERSIDAD REGIONAL.

Este es un tema apasionante porque clarifica la posición de liderazgo que las universidades regionales latinoamericanas deben tomar para lograr el desarrollo social y economico de sus áreas de influencia. El análisis del Dr. Kenneth T. Cann, director del Departamento de Economía de Western Kentucky University es una invitación a gobernantes, planificadores, profesores y estudiantes para tomar conciencia del apoya que debe darse a las universidades regionales para que puedan cumplir eficientemente su tarea de innovación y cambio.

Regional Development and the Regional University

The Dualistic Condition

Most of the less developed countries are characterized by economic dualism.[1] The term refers to an economic environment that is dichotomized into a modern sector and a traditional sector, both existing simultaneously. The modern sector is industrialized, has good means of transportation and communication, superior educational facilities, the majority of skilled workers, scientists, and engineers, and well developed financial institutions.

The traditional sector, on the other hand, is rural, geographically larger than the modern sector, depends on agriculture and the exploitation of natural resources for income generation, and lacks some or most of the modern infrastructure and institutions necessary for economic development.

Other names have been coined to describe these conditions, for example, a "polarized economy",[2] and "the center versus the periphery",[3] but all tend to refer to the same basic kinds of economic conditions and the unequal spatial distribution of per capita income.

In all dualistic economies resources tend to flow from peripheral areas (the traditional sector) to the center (the modern sector). As a result, the center is frequently able to achieve substantial rates of economic growth, while the peripheral regions, suffering from constant resource drains, find it impossible to generate a sustained development effort even at modest levels.

Several examples of countries with evident internal economic polarization come to mind easily. Brazil has a modern center formed along a north-south axis on the Atlantic coast from Rio de Janeiro through Sao Paulo and Curitiba to Porto Alegre. Although this center makes up a relatively small geographic area, it accounts for 65 per cent of Brazil's gross national product. The Chilean economy is dominated by Santiago and the central region, while the northern and southern areas make up the periphery. The Venezuelan center consists of Caracas and the Maracaibo oil fields. The Argentine economy is dominated by the industrialized Buenos Aires–Rosario center, while the central and southern regions remain relatively undeveloped.

Few countries can ignore or afford to tolerate the large regional income inequalities that are implied by an excessively dualistic economic structure. As a result, numerous development strategies have been proposed or undertaken in an attempt to correct the situation. Centralized economic planning occupies one extreme in the spectrum of strategies. Although the development programs of central planning frequently contain efforts at improving economic conditions in peripheral regions, they are usually conceived and carried-out by persons and institutions located in and economically linked to the modern center. Moreover, programs aimed at equalizing regional income differences may only be undertaken after social conditions in the periphery become embarrassing or because regional political pressures become unbearable. In response, the central planners may ignore market conditions and allocate resources by administrative processes, or take a "project" approach by building a few roads or dams without establishing the conditions favorable for continual regional development initiatives and efforts. Although well-intentioned, and seemingly successful, sporatic regional development projects or artificial allocations of scarce resources toward peripheral areas may actually retard the progress of the center and lead to a general economic decline for the country as a whole.

An alternative approach at the other extreme of the spectrum is essentially laissez-faire in character. It rejects all planning and allows the pressures of market forces, price fluctuations, comparative advantages, and labor mobility to determine development solutions. Under this strategy resources tend to flow automatically from low productivity regions to high productivity regions in search of higher rewards as determined by freely determined market prices. Over time, resource supplies and demands will tend to establish an inter-regional equilibrium. Resources will then be allocated in the best geographic manner without a reduction in national income and production.[4]

The main problem with both of these strategies is that they fail to take the regional distribution of land, capital, and human resources into consideration. The first strategy is usually excessively aggregative in nature, therefore, it fails to see regional economic problems in clear perspective. The second strategy also fails because the very existence of dualism means that innumerable barriers already exist which will prevent the free flow of resources among regions,[5] thereby making it impossible to achieve an inter-regional equilibrium. It is for these reasons that many economists now feel that a regional approach to national economic development may succeed where other strategies have failed, because if regions grow, the total economy must also grow. It is unfortunate that so many economists, government officials, and planners have ignored the regional approach to economic development for so long. The lack of interest may be explainable by the fact that the traditional approach to regional development assumed that local problems were to be solved by local institutions through local efforts.[6]

When is Regional Development Appropriate?

According to John Friedmann, national economic systems evolve through four phases: pre-industrial, transitional, industrial and post-industrial.[7] In all except the first, regional development programs are of importance and contribute to the overall economic development of the country.

1. Pre-Industrial Societies: The industry share of gross national product is less than 10 per cent. Regional policies are not appropriate for a national growth strategy because the basic need is to create the pre-conditions for development. Paraguay and Bolivia in South America and many countries in Asia and Africa appear to fall into this category.

2. Transitional Societies: Industrial production accounts for from 10 per cent to 25 per cent of gross national product. Regional development programs are critical to the creation of a spatial organization, and allocation of resources capable of moving the country through the transition phase to one in which agriculture is modernized and industrial production rises to approximately 50 per cent of gross national product. Several South American countries, especially Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Venezuela are presently in a transitional stage between pre-industrial and industrial societies.

3. Industrial Societies: The industrial share of total production ranges form 25 per cent to 50 per cent. Regional development programs no longer have the same emphasis or goals an in phase 2, but are still of critical importance for dealing with the problems of depressed areas, area development, and the consequences of changed national and international markets.

4. Post-Industrial Societies: Industrial production reaches a plateau and may even decline slightly as a portion of gross national product. This may occur in a mature economy, such as the United States, when services account for an increasing share of national product. Regional development policies, however, will still be important for the solution of problems related to urban renewal, the decline of rural areas, preservation of open space, and regional stagnation resulting from natural resource exhaustion.

The Role of the Regional University in Regional Development

Regional development in the less developed countries is concerned with the diffusion of modern economic behavior to all areas of the country, with the means of breaking down the dualistic structure of the economy, and with growth in regional income per capita.[8] It can contribute to the domestic exploitation of unutilized natural resources in peripheral areas, and it can help overcome traditional modes of economic behavior in stagnant regions. Ideally, as regions grow, the whole economy will benefit, and productive economic activity as well as income will tend to be more evenly distributed than is the case for the dual economy. If we accept Friedmann's contention that regional development policies are critical or at least important for economic systems in all but the first phase of development (pre-industrial), then it is reasonable to ask whether society should establish a system of regional universities as part of a regional development strategy or policy, and if so, what contribution can regional universities make to regional development.

The formation of a regional university may be one of the best investments that a country can make for the generation of future economic benefits. Such investments are no less important than capital formation for raising income levels because the university plays a key role in the improvement of human creativity, efficiency, and productivity.

All nations have at least one central university located in the modern sector of the country, but these institutions may not be making sufficient contributions toward the economic development of peripheral regions for several reasons:

1. They tend to attract regional talent and skills to the center, functioning as an internal brain drain.
2. The professors are often unaware of regional problems, or even hostile toward underdeveloped regions.
3. The institution's educational programs may be traditional and classical, concentrating on the teaching of law and philosophy.
4. The institution's research activities may concentrate on highly advanced technology and scientific projects which cannot be utilized in underdeveloped regions operating with very low levels of technology.
5. They may fail to engage in useful extension activities in peripheral areas.
6. Technical and professional education programs may be primarily aimed at training an elite for employment in export industries.
7. They may be outward-oriented toward foreign countries or be engaged in debates over scholarly findings in economically advanced societies instead of being inward-looking toward solutions for domestic and regional problems.

The regional university need not duplicate the programs of the central university, for by doing so it may not generate maximum economic benefits for the region. Generally speaking, however, it should be engaged in three fundamental areas of activity: research, teaching, and extension programs.

The regional university has a major creative role to play with respect to its research mission. It should be constantly engaged in research relating to various aspects of regional development including agriculture, transportation, social change, community development, and a vast array of other topics. In brief, it can be a generator of knowledge and technology which can be used by regional development planners, or adopted by farmers and ranchers, businessmen, and government agencies so that they may become more productive.

The second responsibility of the regional university is teaching, and it is in this area that the greatest care must be taken not to duplicate the entire or traditional programs of the central university. It would seem preferable to concentrate on the training of elementary and secondary school teachers so that the general level or rural education can be improved. Instruction in traditional areas such as law and philosophy may be minimized in favor of technical and applied education of potential importance to the region in agriculture, mining, engineering, forestry, and the social sciences. In general, instructional programs must be aimed at enhancing the employability of the unemployed and underemployed.

Finally, extension programs, adult education, and various special courses may be developed in order to reach-out to the people of the region. Seminars and workshops can be established, not only for the purpose of passing-on specific information, skills, and knowledge, but for the purpose of improving community leadership and revitalizing local efforts toward social and economic improvement.

The regional university can contribute in many ways to stimulating the economic and social development of the geographic area in which it is located. It must, however, be given a clear mandate and adequate financial support for carrying-out broad educational and research programs which are oriented toward the region, beyond the reach of interests of the central university, or even in preference to the central university.[9] Moreover, an additional benefit may emerge as the people of the region begin to feel that the regional university is their university, and thereby offer more support and greater cooperation than is typically the case for the central university in a far-off city.

The establishment of a regional university may be viewed, therefore, as a public investment in human resource development, and in the formation of facilities for generating new technology and social changes, thereby bringing about the kind of regional improvement and social co-hesiveness that is so often lacking in underdeveloped peripheral areas.

Kenneth T. Cann
Head, Department of Economics
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NOTES

[1]Benjamin Higgins, "The Dualistic Theory of Underdeveloped Areas," *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, Jan., 1957, pp. 99-115.

[2]Albert O. Hirschman, *The Strategy of Economic Development*, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1961.

[3]Raul Prebisch, *Hacia Una Dinamica del Desarrollo Latinoamericano.* Comision Economica para American Latina, Mar del Plata, 1963.

[4]John Friedmann, *Regional Policy: A Case Study of Venezuela*, Cambridge, MIT Press, 1966, pp. 10-19.

[5]Harry W. Richardson, *Regional Economics*, New York, Praeger, 1966, P.3.

[6]Belden Paulson, "Difficulties and Prospects for Community Development in Northeast Brazil," *Inter-American Economic Affairs*, Spring, 1964, p. 64.

[7]John Friedman, *op. cit.*, p. 7

[8]J. Hilhorst, "Regional Development Theory." *Multidisciplinary Aspects of Regional Development*, Montpellier, OECD, 1968, p. 22.

[9]Eliseo Mendoza Berrneto, "Regional Planning in Mexico: Experiment of the LERMA Plan," *Multidisciplinary Aspects of Regional Development*, Montpellier, OECD, 1968, pp. 156-58.

LA ASISTENCIA TECNICA A LA UNIVERSIDAD AUSTRAL DE CHILE.

En la primera semana de Abril del presente año, los señores Lynn E. Greeley y Larry G. Howard viajaron a Santiago, Chile para adelantar con el Sr. Raul Grandjean, Director del Plan de Desarrollo de la Universidad Austral, los detalles relacionados con la compra de equipos de laboratorio que la Universidad Austral con fondos correspondientes al préstamo aprobado por el Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo para esta Universidad. Western, coordinará las compras de equipos a los proveedores norteamericanos y supervisará los despachos de elementos y materiales a Valdivia. Se espera, atraves de la gestión de Western, agilizar el proceso de compras, revisar la calidad científica de los equipos, reducir el valor total de las adquisiciones y acelerar el envío de los laboratorios a Chile.

En Junio de este año, los doctores Frank Six, Robert Bueker, Gary E. Dillard, Leonard D. Brown, William H. Stroube, Ben F. Brown y Edmund E. Hegen viajarán a Valdivia, Chile para unirse a los grupos de trabajo de la Universidad Austral en el estudio del curriculum de las Ciencias Básicas y el Instituto de Producción Animal. Se establecerán igualmente las bases, para los programas de Extensión Agrícola que la Universidad Austral desea desarrollar en la región.

Proposed Joint Research Projects Between The Universidad Industrial De Santander, Colombia and Western Kentucky University

One major objective of the visit to the Universidad de Santander in January 1974 was to examine possibilities for establishing joint Environmental Science programs at Western Kentucky University and the Divisions of Health Sciences, Scientific Research and the Department of Chemical Engineering at the Universidad Industrial de Santander.

During the visit a series of meetings were held between faculty members of the Universidad of Santander and faculty members from Western Kentucky University. As a result of these meetings research projects of common interest and importance were decided upon, thus satisfying one of the major objectives of the trip. It was decided that the proposed research projects would deal with water and air pollution problems in the Bucaramanga region. Applications for two projects, one dealing with water pollution and another dealing with air pollution were prepared.

Following are descriptions of these two projects:

Research Project: "Evaluation of Air Pollution In Bucaramanga, Colombia."

Project Directors: Dr. Francisco Puentes M.D.
Division of Health Sciences
Universidad Industrial de Santander

Dr. Donald R. Rowe Ph. D.
Department of Engineering Technology
Western Kentucky University

The objective of this study will be to measure the levels of particulate and gaseous air contaminants at industrial, commercial and residential sites in the city of Bucaramanga.

This study will form only part of a more comprehensive air pollution study which will deal with the effects of these contaminants on the health of people, animals, vegetation and property.

To determine the extent of air pollution in Bucaramanga, plans have been made to sample weekly at five sites for a period of one year for particulates (settleable and suspended), for gases (sulfur dioxide, oxidants and nitrogen dioxide), and the sulfation rate. The soiling index will be monitored at only one station.

This study will establish current levels of air contaminants in the ambient air and provide a basis for developing recommendations for the guidance of local officials in meeting existing and future air pollution problems. The study will also provide a basis for carrying out the comprehensive air pollution research projects as well as enhance public awareness of the air pollution problems in Bucaramanga and encourage support for local air pollution control and monitoring programs.

Research Project: "Water Quality Surveillance In The Oro River"

Project Directors: Dr. Edgar Paez Ph.D.
Department of Chemical Engineering
Universidad de Santander

Dr. Donald R. Rowe Ph.D.
Department of Engineering Technology
Western Kentucky University

The Oro River receives the untreated domestic, industrial and storm water runoff from the city of Bucaramanga (population approximately 350,000). No water quality studies have been made to determine the effects of these discharges on the Oro River. The primary objective of this study will be to evaluate the physical, chemical and biological characteristics of the water, in the Oro River as well as its major tributaries and to evaluate how effective the out-fall structures (some of which are 150-200 meters long and drop from 75-150 meters) are in providing treatment to the waste water discharges.

The information from this study will provide base line data as to the present water quality in the Oro River and will provide public officials with information they will need in planning for industrial and housing developments along this water way. It will also provide Public Health Officials with information as to the proper recreational use of the Oro River.

Dr. Donald R. Rowe
Department of Engineering Technology
Western Kentucky University

PROGRAMAS DE POST-GRADO PARA PROFESORES Y ADMINISTRADORES DE LAS UNIVERSIDADES LATINOAMERICANAS.

En adición a los programas regulares de post-grado que ofrece Western Kentucky University, se ofrece a las Universidades Latinoamericanas especialización a nivel de magister y de especialista en educación en las siguientes áreas académicas:

1) Administración Universitaria
2) Metodologia de la Enseñanza Universitaria
3) Formación de Profesorado para las Carreras Intermedias
4) Desarrollo Regional
5) Desarrollo Urbano
6) Cartografía y Foto-interpretación
7) Economía para Administradores y Gerentes

Estos programas tienen un año mínimo de duración y están reglamentados por la Escuela de Post-grado en cuanto a número de créditos y otros requisitos necesarios para la obtención de los grados Magister y Especialista en Educación.

Western ofrece asistencia para la realización de programas cortos de entrenamiento en la preparación de material audio-visual, utilización y selección de equipos adiovisuales, compra de equipos de laboratorio, evaluación de sistemas de enseñanza y utilización del computador en la administración general de la Universidad.

LA CASTELLANIZACION EN GUATEMALA

El Dr. William J. Nolan ha dedicado gran parte de su vida professional al estudio de la educación latinoamericana en todos sus niveles; el presente estudio sobre Guatemala nos ofrece una dimensión en el proceso de la educación de adultos y niños que no se ha divulgado con el debido énfasis, entre los educadores del continente. La educación de los indios nos compromete a todos porque ellos representan lo más valioso de nuestra tradición cultrual.

Castellanización En Guatemala

Introducción

Quizás sea apropiado comenzar este artículo con algunos comentarios preliminares relativos a Guatemala y su pueblo antes de emprender una discusión sobre el Programa de Castellanización que está siendo implantado como parte del programa educacional total de la nación.

Casi la mitad de la población de Guatemala es indígena. Este hecho mismo distingue a Guatemala del resto de las repúblicas latinoamericanas. Para hacer los problemas educativos a que hace frente esta nacion aun más complejos, la población indígena habla 22 dialectos diferentes y más de 40% de la gente habla uno de ellos en el hogar. Los indígenas predominan en su mayor parte en las áreas norte y oeste de la nación mientras que los ladinos, los que son mezcla de sangre indígena y española, están en su mayoría en las áreas sur y este. La lengua de los ladinos es el idioma oficial de la nación; en otras palabras, el español. Del total, 65% de los habitantes viven en áreas rurales, pero en las tierras del norte y del oeste, la población clasificada como rural alcanza un 78.9%. En general, cuando se discute la educación rural en Guatemala, se refiere en gran parte a la educación del sector indio, el cual, como se ha hecho notar, predomina y es rural. Castellanización, que será definido más adelante en este artículo, es un programa limitado principalmente a esas áreas en el norte y el oeste de Guatemala.

Guatemala, al igual que los demás países latinoamericanos, acepta la educación como una de las funciones del Estado. Bajo la ley, la educación es teóricamente obligatoria y libre para todos los niños a lo largo de los seis primeros grados. Pero obviamente, esta provisión existe sólo en teoría y la nación ha fallado en incorporar la población indígena en el sistema nacional de educación y en consecuencia en la vida nacional.

El Programa de Castellanización

Reinaldo Alfaro Palacios, Jefe de la Sección de Castellanización, define castellanización simplemente como ". . . . enseñar el idioma español a la persona que no lo conoce." El programa de castellanización, sin embargo, comprende más que la enseñanza del español a los niños indígenas monolingües de Guatemala. La enseñanza del español es solamente un aspecto de los varios que el programa ha planeado. Se dirá más acerca de los diferentes aspectos, más adelante en este reporte.

La castellanización en sí misma no es nueva; ha existido casi desde el momento en que el primer español encontró al primer indio en el Nuevo Mundo. Sin embargo, en tiempos más recientes la castellanización se ha usado para señalar un tipo de programa específico. En Guatemala, por muchos años, se ha buscado preparar a los niños indígenas para que puedan ser aceptados en el I grado en el cual español es el idioma de instrucción.

Antes de 1965 a muchos maestros de clase en las escuelas rurales se les asignaba una clase de castellanización adicional a sus clases regulares, pero en 1965 sólo 43 maestros en realidad enseñaron castellanización como una especialidad. De los 43 maestros, sólo 20 hablaban la lengua de la comunidad en la que enseñaban. El programa instituído en 1965 intenta remediar esta situación a través del uso de instructores entrenados, bilingües, y por medio de la lengua del área en la que el programa funciona.

El Profesor Alfaro organizó la primera escuela específicamente diseñada para la castellanización en 1945 en Nebaj en el Departamento de Quiché. Sin embargo, el programa no se constituyó formalmente en la nación hasta 1965 cuando la nueva Ley Orgánica de Educación Nacional fue promulgada. El artículo 66 de la Ley aconseja a la Dirección de Desarrollo Rural Socio-Educativo a hacer énfasis en los programas de castellanización. Una sección especial se instaló dentro de la Dirección y el Profesor Alfaro fue llamado de sus labores en Nebaj a administrar la recién creada Sección de Castellanización. Reconociendo las deficiencias de los programas de castellanización en el pasado, la Dirección aceptó un nuevo plan formulado por el Instituto Indigenista Nacional y el Instituto Linguista de Verano en cooperación con la Sección de Castellanización.

Los objetivos primarios del nuevo programa son:

1. Enseñar a los niños indígenas monolingües a hablar español como una preparación para el primer grado al mismo tiempo que enseñarles a leer y a escribir en su lengua materna.
2. Cooperar en las campañas de alfabetización en español para adultos.

En cierto modo la castellanización, con la connotación que el presente programa le da, se parece a los programas "Headstart" de los Estados Unidos. Ambos buscan preparar al niño deficiente culturalmente para entrar al primer grado; en el programa que se discute, castellanización intenta elevar al niño indígena monolingüe a un nivel de eficiencia en español que lo ponga al lado del niño ladino que lo habla y lo prepare para el momento de su entrada al primer grado en donde esta lengua es el idioma de instrucción. El programa espera solucionar algunos—pero de ninguna manera todos—los problemas establecidos propios del sistema educativo guatemalteco atribuídos al predominio de la población indígena rural. Algunos de esos problemas serán discutidos más adelante en forma más completa.

Los indios entrenados y utilizados como instructores son conocidos con el nombre de promotores más que como maestros. El entrenamiento formal de cada grupo de promotores se hace en dos fases de ocho semanas cada uno en la Escuela Indigenista Rural Comunal de Chichicastenango. El entrenamiento debe ser continuado, sin embargo, por medio de lecciones de correspondencia, visitas de supervisores y cursos en servicio ofrecidos localmente.

La selección de los entrenados se basa principalmente en el siguiente criterio:

1. El candidato debe ser bilingüe (idioma nativo y español).
2. El candidato debe haber completado la escuela primaria.
3. El candidato debe ser recomendado por la Escuela Indigenista Rural Comunal, el Instituto Nacional Indigenista, el Instituto Linguístico de Verano o alguna otra institución reconocida.

Además de los usuales exámenes de salud se requieren también observaciones sobre el carácter moral de la persona en el proceso de selección.

Las 264 horas de clase de la Fase I del grupo primero se dividieron de la siguiente manera:

	Horas Lectivas
Idioma y Métodos	106½
Matemáticas y Métodos	36
Ciencias Naturales	11¼
Geografía e Historia de Centro América	11¼
Artes Industriales	12
Agricultura y Ganadería	24
Desarrollo de la Comunidad y Relaciones Humanas	30
Organización y Manejo de Centros de Castellanización	13½
Salud, Nutrición y Actividades Recreativas	19½
Total de Horas Lectivas	264

El promotor recibe un salario de 50 quetzales (U.S. $50.00) al mes que es la mitad del salario recibido por un maestro certificado que comienza en la escuela elemental regular.

Además de enseñar español a los niños, el promotor debe aceptar responsabilidad de al menos otras cuatro labores bien definidas. Se espera de él:

1. Enseñar a los niños a leer y escribir el dialecto indígena predominante en su comunidad.
2. Estimular el interés y reclutar mujeres adultas para un programa de castellanización durante las tardes.
3. Estimular el interés y reclutar hombres adultos para un programa nocturno de alfabetización en idioma español que el también conduce.
4. Estimular el interés y el trabajo en programas de desarrollo de la comunidad que contribuirán al mejoramiento económico, social, de salud y sanidad de la comunidad.

Los programas de castellanización del pasado sufrieron ciertos defectos y deficiencias crónicas. La naturaleza de la tarea educacional misma y de los maestros asignados a ella en intentos previos contribuyeron enormemente al fracaso de incorporar la población indígena dentro del verdadero sistema educacional de la nación.

Como el español es el idioma de instrucción en las escuelas guatemaltecas, y a la altura de 1965 solamente 20 del número total de maestros implicados en castellanización tenían capacidad de hablar el lenguaje de la comunidad en que enseñaban, la mayoría de los niños indígenas pronto se desanimaron al darse cuenta de su falta de habilidad y de comprensión del idioma usado en el mundo extraño del primer grado. En el programa nuevo la primera hora de cada día se dedica a la enseñanza del español, pero más como un idioma extranjero que como un idioma de instrucción. El niño está relativamente en el mismo nivel de habilidad en español que el resto de sus compañeros y es introducido al nuevo idioma gradualmente. Además, casi tres horas del día escolar se dedican a aprender a leer y escribir la lengua que el niño ya habla y comprende. Las presiones sobre el niño dentro del nuevo programa de castellanización han sido reducidas en gran parte.

Come se ha hecho notar, a los maestros a quienes se les asignó secciones de castellanización en tiempos anteriores, se les dio esta tarea en forma adicional a su asignación de lecciones regulares. Con frecuencia, les faltó tiempo e interés para poner la debida atención a este programa y el niño monolingüe no pudo avanzar en una gran mayoría. Puesto que ahora uno de los objectivos de castellanización es la preparación del niño para el primer grado, el promotor no necesita preocuparse con el plan de estudios del primer grado en sí. Su trabajo con los niños es principalmente en el área de entrenamiento del idioma tanto español como el dialecto de la comunidad y en niveles elementales.

El promotor es un indio bilingüe quien, después de haber completado su entrenamiento, ha regresado a su propia área de trabajo en una comunidad que le es completamente familiar, con un lenguaje que lo hace sentirse en su casa y con cuyos problemas está íntimamente identificado. Es aceptado generalmente como un miembro de la comunidad que ha logrado éxito en cierta medida "afuera" y quien ha venido ahora a dar los beneficios de su conocimiento superior a su propio pueblo. No es, como ha sido tan corriente en el pasado, simplemente un "extranjero" que ha sido nombrado por el gobierno nacional como maestro en una comunidad de la cual conoce muy poco y que, para comprender la lengua nativa necesita un intérprete.

El nuevo programa de castellanización no es un programa que busca solamente reemplazar la cultura indígena rural por la cultura urbana del ladino, pero que busca más bien infundir orgullo en el pueblo de la comunidad por su propia herencia y cultura, al mismo tiempo que lo incorpora dentro de la vida nacional de Guatemala. La misma selección de promotores bilingües indígenas para llevar a cabo el programa es una indicación de este propósito, lo mismo que el contexto y material ilustrativo de los textos usados para la instucción en la lengua materna. Los "Centros de Interés" que forman la base de la porción de español del programa provee amplio material de naturaleza patriótica y nacional que da al ciudadano indio el sentimiento de formar parte de algo que va más allá de los límites de la comunidad.

El programa completo de castellanización abarca dos años y sigue el año escolar regular de enero a octubre que tiene Guatemala, aunque algunos promotores han tenido que esperar hasta que haya habido facilidades disponibles. En tales casos se han comenzado las clases en distintas épocas en alguas zonas.

A pesar de la oposición proveniente de diversas fuentes, el programa está funcionando y creciendo. Idealmente, el Departamento de Educación Primaria desea inaugurar un centro nuevo de castellanización cada dia del año hasta alcanzar el número suficiente para cubrir las necesidades de la nación. De esta manera, en forma ideal, llegará un momento en que castallanización habrá logrado su meta y la población indígena será una población bilinglie.

Una actitud común a todos los centros de castellanización visitados por el autor, es la fe profunda en el programa por parte de los promotores lo mismo que aparentemente, un gran deseo de aprender y alegría por parte de los niños. Los promotores reciben un salario que tal vez sea superior a lo que podrían ganar en otra posición en vista de sus conocimientos educacionales relativamente bajos, pero más que estos conocimientos, tienen mucho espíritu y dedicación al deber, lo cual no tiene precio. Los niños entran libremente en el proceso de aprendizaje y parecen muy contentos de estar asistiendo. Tal vez ven en el tiempo gastado en clase un respiro a sus trabajos en los campos, pero el escritor cree que este sentimiento de los niños es aun más profundo que un simple respiro. Ellos tienen que trabajar todavía en los campos al final del día escolar. En cada centro las niñas usan el vestido tradicional de la comunidad, y mientras los niños pueden usar camisas y pantalones en los que se ven remiendo sobre remiendo, pronto surge el respeto y la afección mutua entre promotores y pupilos. No se puede dejar tal lugar de enseñanza, no importa lo elemental que sea, sin desearles a todos los que están en él, el mayor de los éxitos.

PROGRAMAS COOPERATIVOS DE POST–GRADO

De Mayo 15 a Agosto 15 de cada año académico, Western está en capacidad de estudiar con las Universidades Latinoamericanas interesadas, la organización de programas conjuntos de post-grado para ser dictados en las sedes de las Universidades interesadas.

El área de especialización, el sistema de créditos, los requisitos de grado y los programas de investigación se estudiarán y se reglamentarán de común acuerdo entre las dos Instituciones.

Para mayor información, sírvase escribir a:

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LA EDUCACION TECNICA VOCACIONAL

El presente artículo, escrito por el Dr. Vincent J. Feck, especialista en la formación de profesores para las Escuelas Técnicas y Vocacionales, presenta una visión clara y precisa de las características y objetivos de esta importante rama de la educación norteamericana. En su labor de enlace entre Western Kentucky University, la Industria y las Escuelas Vocacionales del Estado, el Dr. Feck nos ofrece sus comentarios sobre el impacto positivo que la educación técnica-vocacional está produciendo en la formación y en el futuro de un apreciable porcentaje de la juventud que no se siente atraida por las carreras de nivel universitario.

Vocational Education in the United States

Vocational Education is "that part of education which makes an individual more employable in one group of occupations than in another."[1] Vocational education is "concerned with learning to work."[2]

The committee on Research and Publications of the American Vocational Association has defined Vocational Education as"education designed to develop skills, abilities, understandings, attitudes, work habits, and appreciations needed to enter and make progress in employment on a useful and productive basis."[3]

The preceding definitions imply that vocational education is as old as the civilization of man, himself. The oldest method of vocational education was for the father to teach his son(s) the occupational information he had acquired during a generation of work. However, the industrial revolution changed both the ability and need for the father to teach his children his occupation. Fewer people became involved in providing the basic necessities of life for the family and the technological developments in expanding occupations made it impossible for the father to be knowledgeable of the many components of his own field of employment. Thus, there was a need for a formalized educational program designed to prepare an individual for work and upgrade those currently employed.

Although there have been and continue to be various types of vocational education programs in the United States, (programs offered in private, and public schools and community colleges) the most universally known programs are those subsidized by the Federal Government and offered in public schools for secondary and post-secondary students.

Education in the United States has been and continues to be a State right and responsibility. However, in vocational education, the Federal government has taken an active leadership and financial supporting role.

The first federal legislative act initiating federal support for vocational education was the Smith Hughes Act of 1917. This act provided for a continuing appropriating for vocational education in agriculture, in trades and industry and in homemaking and for teacher training in each area. Initial appropriation for each educational program area was $500,000. To date there have been six major legislative acts providing appropriations for vocational education. The most recent is the 1963 Vocational Education Act with the 1968 and 1972 amendments. The 1972-73 federal support of vocational programs amounted to over 500 million dollars. This represents only a supplementary effort and contribution by the Federal Government amounting to approximately 1/3 of the total expenditure for vocational programs. State and local governments are generally required to match the federal support $1.00 per$1.00. However, most states spend more than $2.00+ for every $1.00 of federal support for vocational programs. In Kentucky the ratio is apporximately 4 to 1.

Economic & Social Values of Vocational Education;

"Trained and effective workers are essential to economic and social progress of a nation. Effective programs of vocational education contribute to the nation's economic welfare."[4] For example, during World War II, vocational education demonstrated through its programs the capacity to provide a competent well-trained work force. This represented and continues to represent a vital component of national security.

The United States Senate Committee on appropriations, Dept. of Labor, Health, Education and Welfare has stated: "that a strong National defense and a stable economy require both a trained and productive labor force."[5]

Work in the American society has many important functions. It provides products and services according to consumer demand, the opportunity for the worker to attain rewards from association with others, a channel of communication, status, and reassures the worker of his personal worth. Work is a significant factor in determining how much money a worker receives, where he will live, what kind of recreation he will enjoy and who he will meet and associate with socially. Work also has therapeutic value in that it contributes to the process of self actualization.

Vocational education, which is designed to prepare or upgrade various types of workers, can greatly influence the attainment of the described functions. Initially such programs increase the graduates' options for employment. Upgrading in-service education usually results in promotion and a succeeding increase in pay.

Vocational education programs are a valuable asset to industry in providing a source of trained manpower. Management personnel concede that a major factor in selecting sites for industrial expansion is the availability of trained manpower and vocational schools. Special short-term in-service programs are frequently offered to meet specific training needs of an industry.

Vocational education programs have served America in times of social crisis. Vocational programs designed to meet the needs of disadvantaged and handicapped have been developed to provide for the development of saleable skills for the students in the inner city and the rural poor. There are special programs for the academically disadvantaged who are potential dropouts. These programs provide opportunities for students to make specific application of academic subjects and focus on skill development in learning by doing situations. This instructional technique is less abstract and thus more effective with the academically disadvantaged.

Quality programs of vocational education in the United states have the following basic characteristics:
Quality programs:

1. Provide for the accomplishment of the following basic purposes: (a) to prepare people for initial entry into employment in a variety of occupational fields that include agriculture, business, distribution, trades and industry, health, home economics and/or consumer education; (b) retraining personnel for new and different job opportunities; and(c) upgrading the skills of the employed.

2. Serve the following target populations (a) high school students, (b) out of school youth and adults, (c) post secondary technician students, (d) academically and socially disadvantaged youth and adults. This includes programs for the unemployed and the underemployed as well as those aspiring to higher level positions.

3. Consist of muticurricular offerings to permit preparation for broad cluster areas of

occupational choice; have flexibility enabling the curriculum to change and adapt to technological and labor market changes in business and industry.

4. Permit youth and adults to enter or exit an educational program when he or she is ready and able to do so, through full and part time educational program offerings.

5. Are provided in a variety of institutional settings to include; separate specialized area schools, departments within comprehensive public high schools, departments within junior or community colleges, facilities provided by business and industry for cooperative educational programs. The programs should serve a geographic area with a population large enough to support extensive use of the facilities, day and evening.

6. Develop the instructional program from a detailed and systematic analysis of job qualifications, competencies required for successful employment in each level of occupational cluster, in recognition of the fact that skills and related technical knowledge vary in content and depth for each occupational cluster; provide for the learning of the technology, mathematics, science, drawing or art related to the occupation; include ancillary skills required of all individuals to live in our society as a member of a family, as a consumer and as a citizen, and provide abundant opportunities during the program for learning by doing, and for relating the theoretical to practical working situations.

7. Have advisory committees which are truly representative and knowledgeable about the needs of business and industry and utilize the committee in the development, operation and evaluation of vocational programs and curricula.

8. Provide vocational guidance, counseling, placement and follow-up services as an integral part of the programs.

9. Provide for the development of leadership and citizenship attributes of the students through active student organization activities as an integral part of the instructional program. (Future Farmers of America, Vocational Industrial Clubs of America, etc.)

10. Utilize physical facilities and equipment that are similar to those that are used in the actual work situations and are flexible enough to readily adapt to essential changes and updating.

11. Are administered and taught by personnel who understand the philosophy of vocational education, the needs of students, business and industry, and who are able to work effectively with employers, labor organizations, school officials, and other related governmental and social agencies, who have sufficient and varied occupational experience in business and/or industry and have adequate professional preparation in education and technical background in an occupational cluster area.

12. Provide for systematic evaluation of the program effectiveness through periodic planning and evaluation sessions, performance tests and follow-up studies of the graduates.

Quality vocational programs are a vital asset to the individual, industry and to the nation. All aspects of our society can and do benefit from vocational programs. However, the most important contribution of vocational education is the development of our human resources. Productive citizens are our nation's most valuable asset.

Benefits realized through vocational programs in the United states include: development of saleable skills that increase job opportunities for graduates, increased opportunities for promotion and additional income, reduced unemployment, reduced welfare payments, increased motivation for learning, retention in school of potential drop-outs, reduced industrial training costs, more efficient and productive employees, and increased job satisfaction. Some vocational programs provide students with the educational background needed to initiate their own business, such as farming and small service operations such as appliance repair. Many of these programs result in the generation of new jobs as business expands. Vocational programs which result in increased income or new jobs for the unemployed have a multiple effect on our economy. Increased personal income provides an increased source of tax revenues. The described benefits make vocational education a worthy and valuable investment in our country.

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[1]Evans, Rupert N. *Foundations of Vocational Education,* pg. 1 C.E. Merrill Publishing Company.

[2]Roberts, Roy W. *Vocational and Practical Arts Education,* Harper & Row Publishers, pg. 1

[3]Ibid., pg. 9

[4]Cohen, Wilbur J. *"Organization and Operation of a Local Program of Vocational Education.* pg. 9

[5]Congressional Report U.S. Senate, October 1973, Committee on Appropriations Dept. of Labor, Health, Education and Welfare, pg. 2

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LA ADMINISTRACION DE LAS ESCUELAS SECUNDARIAS CATOLICAS.

La Hermana Rita José Jarrell, O.S.U., estudiante de postgrado de la Facultad de Educación presenta un resumen sobre las condiciones que debe llenar un aspirante a Administrador o Director de las Escuelas Secundarias Católicas.

Estudio De La Administración Del Sistema Educacional En Las Escuelas Secundarias Católicas

La persona que desea llegar a administrar una escuela secundaria católica tiene que cumplir los requisitos exigidos y tener los conocimientos que el desempeño de la administración conlleva.

Primero, antes de comenzar los estudios relacionados con la anterior aspiración, el estudiante debe de haber tenido al menos tres años de experiencia en la enseñanza; haber pasado el examen GRE que corresponde a la parte de la educación avanzada con 500 puntos que equivalen a 100 más el promedio; debe también haber sostenido una conferencia oficial con algun funcionario del departamento administrativo de la universidad; presentar tres recomendaciones o referencias de personas que desempeñen trabajos dentro de la administración de escuelas secundarias y finalmente haber obtenido un Master en Artes con treinta horas créditos dedicadas especialmente al estudio intensivo de la materia que constituirá su campo de enseñanza. Una vez graduado estará en disposición de comenzar los estudios que abarcan el campo de la administración de las escuelas secundarias. Se necesitan quince horas más de estudios para lograr ese objetivo y las mismas están clasificadas de esta manera:

1. Supervisión de la Instrucción (3 horas)
2. Desarrollo de las formas de estudio (3 horas)
3. Principios de administración (3 horas)
4. Psicología de la enseñanza (3 horas)
5. Evaluación de la educación (3 horas)

Una vez que el estudiante está finalizando estos estudios, debe entonces aplicar para una certificación que lo acredite en el Estado donde vive o donde recibe la educación. Después de ser examinada su aplicación y aceptada, el Estado la hace pública. Una vez realizados estos trámites, el estudiante está capacitado para ocupar una posición como administrador de una escuela.

Un factor muy importante en el desempeño de la administración de una escuela, es la personalidad del individuo. El mismo debe de poseer una gran capacidad de organización; una gran fuerza de trabajo; una inteligencia que sobrepase al promedio normal; una condición natural de delicadeza y amabilidad, sin dejar por ello de usar la rectitud cuando fuese necesario y finalmente sentir una gran devoción por el sistema educacional que dirige, por los estudiantes y por los profesores.

La posición de administrador si bien es verdad que confronta a veces muchas dificultades, no es menos cierto que produce orgullo y satisfacción el ser útil y poder ayudar a los que necesitan nuestra cooperación.

La posición de administrar una escuela tanto pública como católica es muy similar. La diferencia que existe está basada principalmente en estos puntos: En las escuelas católicas se ofrece un curso de religión para todos los estudiantes; la mitad de los profesores son religiosos; hay más control de la disciplina; el dinero para cubrir los gastos es obtenido de los padres o de los estudiantes mediante el pago de la matrícula y en general las asignaturas que se enseñan son más difíciles, ya que no hay suficiente dinero para extender el programa de estudios y ofrecer cursos fáciles. Los estudiantes de las escuelas católicas se sienten agradecidos a sus padres, porque los mismos realizan el sacrificio de costearles su educación y también saben apreciar la dedicación de los profesores.

Los maestros de las escuelas católicas reciben un salario menor que los maestros de las escuelas públicas.

Las responsabilidades del administrador de una escuela son: combinar los programas de estudios; supervisar y señalar el salario de los profesores; mantener buenas relaciones públicas con la comunidad y cuidar de la conservación del edificio y de las propiedades de la escuela;

Actualmente el sistema de educación de las escuelas católicas confronta muchas dificultades. Cada año que pasa el costo que supone el mantener este sistema educacional aumenta, entre otras cosas por la necesidad de contratar maestros laicos, ya que los religiosos escasean. Como los ingresos no aumentan el la misma proporción, este desnivel crea un grave problema económico.

El que se continue manteniendo en el futuro el sistema educacional católico depende pricipalmente de las condiciones creadoras y organizadoras de los que ocupan la administración de las escuelas, que hoy más que nunca necesitan poner todo su amor, y dedicación a esta noble tarea educativa. . . Ellos se enfrenta con un gran desafío, que con la ayuda de Dios podrán vencer.

El Director De Escuelas Públicas Secundarias En El Estado De Kentucky

El presente articulo, es un resumen parcial de una investigación realizada por el Dr. Claude Frady, Coordinador de Programas de Post-grado de la Facultad de Educación de Western Kentucky University.

¿Quien es el Director de Escuela Pública Secundaria?

Es un hombre de cuarenta años, nacido y educado en Kentucky, el cual, generalmente trabaja en la misma provincia o región donde nació. Levantado en el campo o en pueblos pequeños, se educó en la escuela rural o en la escuela de su pueblo natal.

Es un miembro activo de su comunidad y de su iglesia, casado, con dos hijos, enseña catecismo los domingos, es miembro por lo menos de dos organizaciones cívicas y está afiliado al Partido Democrata.

Cuando tiene tiempo libre, le gusta irse de pesca, su pasatiempo favorito. También le agrada la lectura, los eventos deportivos en la televisión, la cacería, el trabajo en el jardín, la agricultura y la carpintería.

Sus lecturas no profesionales giran alrededor de los periódicos locales, las Selecciones del Reader's Digest, la revista Time, Life y el Saturday Evening Post.

Generalmente tiene un grado universitario o normalista en Educación y un título de post-grado a nivel magister (master). Sus áreas de especialización son las Ciencias Sociales y la Historia.

Ha sido nombrado Director de la Escuela Pública Secundaria, a la edad de 33 años, después de haber adquirido una apreciable experiencia como profesor o como entrenador de deportes.

Durante su período como Director de Escuela, ha estado tomando otros cursos de post-grado, especialmente aquellos que pueden darle mayor capacitación para el trabajo que actualmente realiza.

Es un miembro de la Asociación Nacional de Directores de Escuelas Públicas, de la Asociación Nacional de Educadores y de la Asociación de Educacion del Estado de Kentucky. Con sus propios recursos asiste a las convenciones y reuniones profesionales que se realizan en el Estado.

Su trabajo es estable, el ambiente es agradable y piensa en mantener su puesto mientras pueda realizar una labor positiva.

Considera el sentido común, la honestidad, la responsabilidad y la dedicación al estudio, como las principales virtudes que debe tener un Director de Escuela. No considera el refinamiento personal ni los medios económicos como cualidades para un aspirante a Director de Escuela Pública.

En el desarrollo de sus funciones, el trabajo administrativo le ocupa gran parte de su tiempo; sin embargo, procura distribuir balanceadamente su horario de trabajo en las siguientes actividades: visita a los salones de clase, entrevistas individuales con los profesores, atendiendo consultas de los estudiantes, promoviendo la escuela en la comunidad y la supervisión de las actividades extracurriculares de la institución.

El cree que la escuela debe administrarse democráticamente; busca información directa de profesores y alumnos sobre los diferentes programas y problemas de la escuela; es un profesor de corazón que considera que la Escuela Pública debe estar abierta para todos los jóvenes que soliciten admisión sin discriminación de razas, credos o nivel económico.

El quisiera que las universidades se interesarán por conocer más de cerca la organización y el funcionamiento de las Escuelas Públicas; en el momento, no existe el mejor sistema de comunicaciones entre las universidades y la educación secundaria. La Universidad debe hacer un mayor esfuerzo para ayudar a la orientación de los programas académicos que se ofrecen en las Escuelas Públicas Secundarias.

Para su trabajo de investigación, el Dr. Frady dividió el Estado de Kentucky en cuatro regiones geográficas, enviando a cada Director de Escuela un formulario con una serie de preguntas relacionadas con su vida personal y profesional. Un 62 por ciento de los entrevistados contestaron el cuestionario; no se encontraron mayores diferencias en los razgos, preferencias y características entre las cuatro regiones geográficas, Sobre la base de los resultados obtenidos, se pudo hacer la anterior composición para describir las características del Director de Escuela Pública Secundaria del Estado de Kentucky.

Si Ud. quiere contribuir un artículo o comentar sobre cualquier tema en esta revista, escriba por favor a:

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